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THE NEILGHERRY HILLS, AND THEIR INHABITANTS. II.



A TUDAR FAMILY IN THE NEILGHERRIES.

WHEN the Tudars of the Neilgherries are spoken of as a tribe possessing characteristics superior to those of the surrounding natives, it must be remarked that this applies to a certain degree of natural intelligence, capable, if well directed, of raising them to a respectable footing in the social scale. Practically speaking, their lives present much that we must lament.

Captain Harkness, after several unsuccessful attempts to discover their religious notions, contrived to gain admission to one of their temples. This temple was in a morrt or family village, at some distance from the inhabited huts; and on opening the door, he found the interior to be divided into two apartments by a partitioned wall. The outer apartment was about ten feet by eight, but only of sufficient height in the centre to stand upright; on two sides were raised benches, a foot and a half from the ground, intended to recline or sleep on; and in the middle a large hearth or fire-place, surrounded by a number of earthen pots, and other utensils. The door-way in the partition-wall being much smaller than the outer one, it could only be entered by a person lying nearly flat on the

ground. This apartment was furnished with earthen vessels the same as the outer one; and it became evident to Captain Harkness that these vessels were the same as those used in the dairy, and that no idols or images were in the room. On mentioning his surmises to the Tudars, they frankly told him that theirs was little more than an affection of a worship resembling that of their neighbours; by which they were enabled to keep on good terms with them. There is, certainly, nothing to regret in the circumstance that these Tudars are *not* Hindoos or Buddhists; but on the other hand there is not the consolation of thinking that they profess a purer faith. The only points which Captain Harkness could at all ascertain were, that they salute the sun at his rising; that they expect to go to a country called Huma-norr after death; and that the dairy, with all its contents, is looked upon as a sacred spot, which the men can only enter after having performed certain ablutions.

We must now direct a little attention to the *Badacars*, the most numerous of the Neilgherry tribes, but of far different character from the Tudars. The latter assert

claim to the soil of the hills, and declare that it was only by their sufferance that the other tribes came to reside on it, and that they receive a payment in kind for the use of the land. Of the tribes here alluded to, the Badacars, who but a few generations ago emigrated hither in escaping from the tyranny and oppression of former masters, and who are ten times more numerous than the Tudars themselves, behave to the latter with a respect and observance denoting that they either consider them superior in natural qualities, or that this deference is due by prescriptive right. The Badacars are, however, a timid race, deeply imbued with superstition; and the Tudars, superior to them in stature, carriage, and demeanour, and distinct from them in religion, language, manners, and mode of life, display an apparent consciousness of superiority, which the others tacitly admit.

The Badacar is less in stature than the Tudar, of a more slender form, and though straight and well-made, undersized in limb. In complexion, both male and female are some shades lighter than the Tudars; but their features are quite of another cast; and those of the females, though by no means bad, are devoid of that lively transition in expression so remarkable in the Tudar women. The dress of the men consists of an upper and under garment, together with a turban, or some kind of cloth wrapped round the head. The dress of the women is rather different from that of the Tudar women, consisting of a sort of petticoat tied in an uncouth manner about the body. Mr. Bacon, who visited the Neilgherry hills some years after Captain Harkness, says of this female attire:—

The costume of the women, though very original, appears susceptible of improvement, inasmuch as discomfort and unsightliness would seem to have been the desiderata of the invention. It consists of a peculiar style of petticoat—to call it rude, to call it uncouth, barbarous, would give no adequate notion of its incongruous discomfort and unsightliness—made of the very crudest description of coarse hempen cloth, in the fashion of an elongated sack, but open at bottom. Being tied by a running string immediately under the arms, it descends to the ankles, leaving the neck, shoulders, and arms bare; and again, it is confined at the knees, in the same manner, by a second string; so that it is impossible for the wearer to take an extended step; the inconvenience of which, in a mountainous country, may be readily conceived.

As the Tudar loves to range at liberty over his native mountains, while the Badacar applies more patiently to industry, the latter acquires better habits of domestic economy, and lives in a more permanent and durable dwelling. A Badacar village usually consists of two rows of houses, with low verandahs projecting from their fronts. The roofs of the dwellings are supported on posts, and the intermediate spaces filled up with a strong wattle-work, which, covered with several coats of plaster, forms a tolerably substantial wall. Exclusive of the verandah, each dwelling is divided into two apartments, the outer one rather larger than the inner, which is separated from it by a wall provided with a low door. In the inner apartment is the hearth or fire-place, where a fire is kept constantly burning, serving as well to cook the food, as to furnish warmth. There is neither chimney or window; so that light must come in, and smoke go out, at the door by which the inmates enter and leave the dwelling. In front of each row of houses is an area, twenty or thirty yards in breadth, bounded by a low stone wall, and formed of well-beaten, hard, dry ground: this serves as a floor for threshing, winnowing, and drying grain. At one end of the village is a circular space in which oxen tread out the larger kind of grain, such as wheat or barley; and at the other end is a kind of farm-yard, in which are inclosures for cattle, stacks of straw, fodder for cattle, broods of domestic poultry, implements of husbandry, &c. These form a very striking characteristic of the Badacars, when compared with the Tudars, who, as we before observed,

rear nothing but buffaloes, and cultivate no kind of grain or vegetable food whatever.

Captain Harkness had an opportunity of witnessing some singular customs observed by the Badacars near one of their villages, in relation to the cultivation of the soil. A family of Badacars had assembled, the head of which was about to commence ploughing. With them were two or three Curumbars, one of whom had set up a stone in the centre of the spot on which they were standing; and decorating it with wild flowers, he prostrated himself to it, offered incense, and sacrificed a goat, which had been brought there for this purpose by the Badacars. He then took the guidance of the plough, and having ploughed a few yards, gave it up, possessed himself of the head of the sacrificed animal, and left the Badacar to prosecute his labours. Some such ceremony as this also takes place when they are going to sow, and likewise when they are going to reap; the Curumbar sowing the first handful, the Badacar sowing the remainder; the Curumbar reaping the first sheaf, and the Badacar reaping the remainder. On such an occasion as the latter, the Curumbar is allowed to carry away as much of the new crop as he likes; but the grain contained in the sheaf which he reaped, is that day reduced to meal, made into cakes, and being offered as a first-fruit oblation, is, together with the remainder of the sacrificed animal, partaken of by the Badacar and the whole of his family, as the meat of a federal offering and sacrifice. At harvest-home, or when the whole of the grain has been gathered in, the Curumbar receives his dues, or his proportion of the produce, consisting, on an average, of about one sixtieth part of the whole.

Our attention may next be directed to those inhabitants of the Neilgherry hills who are called *Cohatars*. Every hill and mountain side occupied by this tribe is called a *Cotagherry*, that is, a *Cohatar-hill*. Every *Cohatar* village has belonging to it a circle of Badacar hamlets or villages, from which they claim, at periodical seasons, the payment in kind of certain fees or dues, and for which they in return furnish the Badacars with, or rather make for them (the latter supplying the material), their implements of woodcraft and husbandry, the principal part of their pottery, and such basket-work as they require, assist them occasionally in gathering in their harvest, and attend with their pipe and tabor on their funerals, marriages, &c. These fees are generally paid in a certain quantity of whatever grain the Badacar has cultivated.

The *Cohatar* villages and houses differ but little from those of the Badacars, except in being less neat and clean. In every village are two buildings appropriated to sacred purposes; of rude construction, being little more than pent roof sheds, thatched with grass, open at one end, and surrounded with a low wall of stone. One of these is devoted to a god called *Carmataraya*, and the other to a goddess named *Sacti*; but in neither is there any image or symbol. On one of the posts supporting the roof are nailed plates of silver, which have something to do with the reputed sanctity of the place. Vows and offerings are made in these temples; and about the month of March a general festival is held, which lasts from the new moon to the full, and during which all the offerings that had been vowed are collected. The ceremonies attendant on this festival are curious. The person who has been nominated to perform the priestly office, and who is chosen from a select number of families, collects the whole of the voted offerings, which generally consist in money, each family contributing as much as their means will allow. With this money he procures, generally from the low country, different kinds of grain, sugar, and two or three other articles; and exhibiting the whole in front of the temple, he prostrates himself towards it. This rite being performed, the different articles are delivered over in various proportions to others of the priestly caste, who prepare and dress them

for food. The whole is now again offered in front of the temple, when the officiator makes a short prayer, for prosperity to the community during the ensuing year; and a large pit being dug, it is lined with leaves, the dressed food put into it, mixed up together, and distributed in portions to the whole of the village. In the evening a large bonfire is made, around which the whole join in a dance, which generally lasts till towards midnight. The same scene takes place on the next and the following days, until the moon is at her full; and during the whole of this period all labour is suspended. On the day of the full moon, after the whole have partaken of the feast, the blacksmith and the silversmith of the village construct each a forge and furnace within the temple, and fabricate something in the way of his avocation,—the blacksmith a chopper or axe, the silversmith a ring, or other ornament. These two smiths are reckoned as the principal artizans of the village; and the practice of each one exhibiting his art in the temple seems to be intended to propitiate the god to whom the temple is dedicated.

Although the Cohatars keep many cows and female buffaloes, they never milk them, nor does milk form any part of their diet; and when they use butter or ghee, which is but seldom, they purchase it from some of their neighbours. Their principal avocation is husbandry, in which they are greatly assisted by their women. Barley, and one or two other kinds of meal, mixed up with water,—the grain being parched before it is ground,—form the common food of these people; but they are particularly fond of flesh of almost every description, whether from a wild or tame animal. Captain Harkness on one occasion, when many miles distant from any of the Cohatar villages, observed, within a copse at a short distance, a group of Cohatar men, women, and children, sitting round a fire, from which smoke was arising. It appears that a merchant had on the previous evening conveyed a drove of bullocks up the mountain; that one of them had died on the road; and that the Cohatars had seized on it as a grand treat. They had made their repast on it, cut up and soddened the remainder, which was suspended to the end of little poles, and with some of which one or two of the party were already preparing to depart. At a short distance lay the hide, carefully rolled up, and around them the horns, bones, feet, and such parts as they thought not worth the carriage.

The other tribes which we have named, as occupying portions of the Neilgherry hills, are in their appearance, religion, character, and occupations, a mean between the singular people already described and the regular Hindoos of the southern parts of India. We shall therefore refrain from describing them, since the foregoing details will furnish the materials for forming some estimate concerning them. Unquestionably the Tudars are the most remarkable of them all. The strange mixture of natural intelligence and beauty of form, with a very rude state of civilization and social communion, is such, that Captain Harkness, after spending much time among them, and enquiring very diligently into the circumstances of their position and character, terminates his interesting narrative with the question,—

“WHO CAN THEY BE?”

It is pity, but it is no less true, that I have observed in some of my friends, who, when their memories represent a thing to them entire, and as it were in present view, begin their story so far back, and crowd it with so many impertinent circumstances, that if the story be good in itself, they spoil it, and if it be bad you are either to curse the strength of their memory, or the weakness of their judgment. It is a difficult matter to close up a narration, and to cut it short in its career. Neither is there anything that more discovers the strength of a horse, than when it makes a full stop with a grace; and of those men who talk pertinently, I know some who would, but cannot, stop short; for whilst they are seeking a period for the narration, they talk idly, and draw out their words like men that have scarce strength to utter them.—MONTAIGNE.

STRATHFIELDSAYE,

THE COUNTRY RESIDENCE OF THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON*.

STRATHFIELDSAYE, though a fine place enough, would scarce attract much of the traveller's notice, were he not informed that it was the seat of the most illustrious man of his age. It was originally the seat of the Earls Rivers, and is situated upon one of the edges of the county of Berks; being distant from Reading about eight or ten miles, and from London not more than fifty. Your readiest means of access to it is by the South Western or Southampton Railroad, which you may quit at Farnborough station; and as all sorts of conveyances are to be had there in abundance, a drive of an hour, or an hour and a half, will carry you to the park paling, and by-and-by to one of the gates. Not much can be said of the fertility of the country, in the heart of which Strathfieldsaye is planted. On the London side, at least, there are many miles of waste, over which the heath waves in luxuriant crops, and multitudes of firs—most of them self-grown—are scattered; while the hamlets and detached cottages which, at wide intervals, break in upon the dreary scene, are precisely such as one would expect to see in a district imperfectly settled. Still, there are patches here and there of very pretty scenery too. You may fancy yourself travelling through a forest, from amid the openings in which you obtain glimpses of various well-wooded hills, almost all of them surmounted or adorned along the side, by a gentleman's seat; for besides the hospitable hall of Sir John Cope, and the residence of the good-humoured Speaker of the House of Commons, there are several country houses gathered within what is considered a visitable distance of Strathfieldsaye; and most of these standing in situations at once elevated and conspicuous, the general effect is in some measure to counteract the impression which the more sterile nature of the land immediately about you may have made.

Everything in and around the family seat of the house of Wellington is unpretending in the extreme. You enter a park of not much more than moderate extent, by a common wooden gate, beside which stands a lodge absolutely unadorned: it is neither more nor less than a cottage, of which the walls are made of brick, while the roof is covered over with thatch, not of yesterday's fabrication. A long sweep of avenue is now before you, the view on either side of which exhibits no particular point of attraction such as might compel you to stop short for the purpose of admiring it. The grounds have indeed a few slopes or falls, the most extensive of which ends in a sort of valley, through which runs the river Loddon, passing close in its onward progress to the mansion. The timber, too, is abundant, yet it is no-wise conspicuous for its bulk. There are groves, thickets, and plantations of course; while inside the paling you find the ordinary garnishment of gnarled oaks and antique thorns. But no lover of the picturesque and beautiful would ever think of quoting Strathfieldsaye as justifying him in the preference which, as a general rule, he is bound to give to the seats of the English aristocracy above those of all other aristocracies.

Along this road you drive, and by-and-by, in the remote distance, the house of the hero of a hundred battles becomes faintly visible. It lies very low—quite, or almost quite, upon a level with the river; indeed the stream is separated from the drawing-room windows only by a narrow slip of lawn and shrubbery. A clump of tall trees—if we mistake not, of the birch and ash kind—screens, and in some sort embowers it, on the flank; and the consequence is, that never having obtained a very accurate survey, your view becomes more obscure in proportion as you approach. But as the distance from the park-gate to the site of the mansion cannot exceed a mile, your postilion soon rattles over that, and then speculation ends by an abrupt display of all that is to be seen.

The mansion-house lying on the other side of the river, you cross a bridge, at the farther extremity of which the boughs of the beech grove over-shadow you. Through that you pass rapidly, when a turn to the left brings you upon the commencement of the drive, which terminates in a broad gravel plat. You are now in front of the house. Look about you, and see what is there. The house itself, built in the reign of Queen Anne, partakes, both in its architecture and general arrangements, of the spirit of the age that produced it. Long and low, with very tall chimneys, its whitened wall and gray slate roof, lack the dignity of the Elizabethan era, without putting on the air of spruce-

* From the *John Bull*.

ness mixed with comfort which characterises the generality of more modern edifices. It presents two rows of windows, which stretch, at measured distances, all along its front. The hall-door, graced on either side by pillars, and covered by a flat roof of trifling breadth, occupies the centre of the pile; and there are little wings, which differ only from the main body of the edifice in being by one story lower. But it is not from the somewhat unattractive form of the mansion that you are enabled at a glance to fix the date of its construction. Facing the entrance, and separated from it only by a road, which measures perhaps one hundred or a hundred and twenty feet in breadth, are the stables, which, with the groom's apartments, the kennel, tennis-court, and one or two out-buildings besides, make up a sort of village, or rather street, of themselves. All this is completely in the French taste of the day, when Marlborough was running a career, the glory of which Wellington has since surpassed. You feel at once that the place ought to be inhabited by the contemporaries of Harley and Dean Swift.

When you have passed the threshold you enter upon a hall—oblong and somewhat low in the roof—which is paved with flat freestone, and warmed by a fire which burns cheerily in an old-fashioned English grate. The hall is well closed in; but the further door being opened, you find yourself in a narrow passage, which runs the entire length of the mansion, and gives the means of ingress to the suite of public rooms which occupy the basement story. These consist of a drawing-room, library, dining-room, and the Duke's own room, all opening one into the other, and in their general shapes all perfectly agreeing. They are such as one would expect to see hung round with paintings, being somewhat narrow for their length, and otherwise present the appearance of a continuous gallery. The furniture is as plain as can at all agree with perfect elegance. Not a single work of art adorns the apartments, except, indeed, that the dining-room, besides being traversed by pillars, has its walls covered over with very curious engravings. But neither the painter nor the sculptor has been employed to adorn an edifice on which it is easy to perceive that the owner has never cared to bestow too much attention. Everything, therefore, about it is good, and substantial, and comfortable of its kind; but you look in vain for the splendour which greets you, at every step, in Blenheim; you are still in the dwelling of the Rivers, not in the palace of a Wellington.

The library, which is an excellent room, contains a tolerably extensive collection of books. They are chiefly modern, as may be supposed, and not a few consist of copies of works which the authors, the natives of every country in Europe, have felt themselves honoured by being permitted to present to the most illustrious of living men.

To the sleeping apartments the same description applies, by which we have endeavoured to bring into the reader's mind some idea of the living rooms. They are all good—some being in point of size larger, and others less—and they are everywhere furnished with a becoming regard both to convenience and good sense—but this is all. You enter them from a corridor which runs the whole length of the building, and to which two or three different staircases, none of them ornamental, conduct from the basement story. It may not, perhaps, be out of place to state, that the apartment which used to serve as the nursery, when the Marquis of Douro and Lord Charles Wellesley were children, looks out upon the gravel drive in front of the house, and has its windows down to the floor; two circumstances to which the Duke, when his friends get him upon topics purely domestic, has been known thus to allude. It seems, that returning home one day from hunting, his Grace saw the two boys thrust themselves so far over the window to greet him, that even he felt nervous for the issue. He did not, however, say one word which might have either startled or agitated them; but dismounted, walked in, and sat down in his chair. "Well," was his remark, when the nurse brought the boys down, "I never knew, before to-day, why the nursery was placed there. But I see now that you have chosen the room from which the boys may most conveniently break their necks, if they be so inclined."

The grounds about Strathfieldsaye are neat, and the walk upon the lawn, which interposes between the house and the river, is very pretty. So is the tortuous path which leads through the shrubbery; but here, as well as elsewhere, there is a total absence of all pretension. The same thing may be said of the stables and coach-houses; all of which do their duty well, though they are all barren of ornament. The tennis-court, also, though an excellent one, is as little assuming as need be; and of the gardens no more

can be said than that they are well kept, and abundantly productive. It is, however, characteristic of the high-minded owner of the soil, that within a few minutes' walk of the house, stands the parish church, a neat and simple edifice, which was repaired, within these fifteen years, by the Duke, and fitted up, both within and without, with equal taste and modesty. Neither has his Grace been unmindful of the wants of the incumbent. We rather think that the parsonage house, which is not more than fifteen years old, was rebuilt in like manner entirely at the Duke's expense; but, however this may be, we know, that long before the passing of the Tithe Commutation Bill, his Grace provided that in his parish no grievance of tithe should be felt. Owning all the property, he paid out of his own pocket an ample stipend to the incumbent, and thus left his tenants free to reap the advantages of any improvements in agriculture which they might introduce.

At Strathfieldsaye the Duke of Wellington is not able entirely to divest himself of his public character. As Lord-Lieutenant of the county he is open to the innumerable claims upon his time of county business, and he makes a point of being at home to entertain the judges, as often as they pass on the circuit towards his neighbourhood. It is here, too, more than at Walmer Castle, that he receives the visits which royalty occasionally pays him. Here he entertained, in other times, George the Fourth. Here King William and Queen Adelaide have spent some pleasant days; and here, unless public rumour be an idle babbler, Queen Victoria and her princely husband may in like manner be expected, sooner or later, to become his guests. When such matters do not interfere with his purely domestic arrangements, the habits of the noble Duke at Strathfieldsaye are quiet, unostentatious, and philosophic. He breakfasts with his company at ten, retires to his own room afterwards, devotes several hours to his endless correspondence, except on hunting days, and goes out, either to ride or to walk, about two. Seven is his dinner hour, and often after tea he forms one at a quiet rubber of whist, where the stakes played for never exceed five-shilling points.

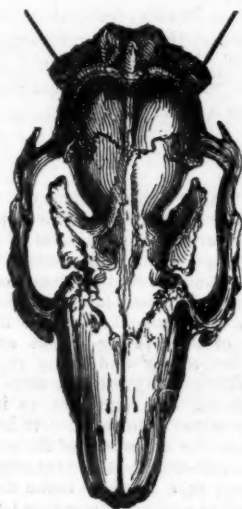
The estate of Strathfieldsaye was purchased for the preserver of his country, out of a sum of money voted to him by Parliament, in 1815. We do not exactly know to what its yearly value may amount, but there is a fact connected with it which deserves to be put upon record, and we therefore state it. Not one shilling of rental has the Duke of Wellington ever expended, except upon the improvement of the property. He neither lays by so much a year in the Funds, nor does he consider himself entitled to devote the money derived from it to his own uses. "I am a rich man," is his argument, "which the next Duke of Wellington will not be. I am, therefore, determined that he shall receive his patrimony in the very best order; and if he cannot keep it so, the fault will not be mine." The consequence is, that go where you may, whether far or near, you will nowhere see a body of tenantry better lodged, better provided with offices, better supplied with all manner of conveniences for the prosecution of their calling, than those which call the Duke of Wellington their landlord. And though the land be not perhaps the best that England can produce, it is everywhere in the highest state of cultivation of which it is susceptible. As a matter of course, the Duke's tenants are exceedingly well pleased with their lot; indeed, a more popular man than he, among all classes of his neighbours, it would be hard to find.

Strathfieldsaye used to be famous for the quantities of game in its preserves. Lately the game has been somewhat neglected, and the consequence is, that the shooting is not now what we remember it. But you may still get a capital day's amusement, if you do not mind walking for it; and no true sportsman grudges a little strain upon his limbs. There are besides hounds in the neighbourhood, to which his Grace subscribes, and of which he used to be a determined follower. He still rides out with them occasionally, and is never seen without winning from high and low marks of the most affectionate reverence. But, alas! upon him, not less than upon other sublunary things, time will exert its influence, and although the noble mind remains perfect as it ever was, the iron frame is yielding—by slow degrees, indeed (may they be ever such!)—to decay. The Duke is a wonderful man to have spent three score years and ten as he has spent them; but we doubt whether he could now ride twenty-five miles to cover—hunt, ride home, and afterwards travel to London, without experiencing a moment's inconvenience from the exertion. Yet we remember his doing this just ten years ago.

ON THE SITUATION OF THE EAR IN ANIMALS.



SKULL OF THE POLE-CAT.



SKULL OF THE HARE.

THE situation of the organ of hearing in animals is admirably adapted to their different habits and necessities, and furnishes an illustration of the wise and beneficent arrangement visible throughout nature.

This adaptation of the organ to the peculiarities of the species cannot be better shown, than by exhibiting to our readers the representations of the skulls of the hare and of the pole-cat. The former of these animals seems constituted for flight, and being the constant object of pursuit, is indebted for much of its safety to a quick perception of danger by means of the external senses. Of these perhaps the most remarkable is the ear, which, viewed externally, is a long open appendage, generally inclining backwards, but also occasionally forwards, or laterally. It serves as an excellent medium for collecting sounds, and transmitting them through the bony portion of the canal to the internal ear. Dr. Farrar has minutely investigated the organ of hearing in several animals, and tells us, in the case of the hare, that the tubulated bony portion of the external ear is nearly half an inch in length, and a quarter of an inch in diameter, pointing backwards and upwards at an angle of forty-five degrees, or thereabouts. The backward situation of this external tube is supposed by the same authority to prevent the animal from hearing distinctly any sounds in front of her; in illustration of which the following circumstance is named. A hare, closely pursued by hounds along a turnpike-road, was seen by a woman approaching her immediately in front; she knelt down and stretched out her apron, and poor puss, alive only to the dangers from behind, ran fairly into her lap.

The direction in which sounds are principally received by this animal, is shown in our illustration by lines drawn from the tubes which convey the perception to the internal ear. The situation of these tubes cannot fail to strike us as being admirably adapted to the necessities of the timid animal, for whose warning and protection their position was undoubtedly designed.

Our next instance displays a perfect contrast in the direction of the organ, and also a slight difference as to situation. And the reason is obvious, when we remember that the pole-cat (whose skull is the object of our second wood cut) is a pursuing animal, and therefore requires the aid of its senses in receiving communications principally from before. The auditory tube in this animal is similar in length and diameter with the hare's, but points downwards and forwards instead of backwards. "When we consider the habits of this animal," says Dr. Farrar, "and behold the structure containing one sense, acting in concert with, and supporting another still more valuable to the animal's existence, we cannot but wonder at the excellence of the arrangements that provides for wants which mere human ingenuity can only comprehend, but could never supply." As a proof that the sense of hearing is much less acute in the pole-cat from behind than before, the following anecdote is given. A farmer had his poultry disturbed during several successive nights, but could not make out the cause, till one day he discovered a couple of pole-cats gambolling in a very frolicsome manner. Without disturbing them, he returned hastily to his house, got his gun loaded, and then went back to look for his visitors. Approaching them cautiously from behind, he was enabled to come within a very few yards of them: he levelled his gun, but it missed fire. This occurred five or six times without a single spark being elicited from his flint; and notwithstanding all this hammering in their rear, the animals never were in the least alarmed. At last he was more successful, and killed one of them, but the other made its escape.

Unlike the case of the hare or the pole-cat, is that of the fox, whose organ of hearing, instead of being an elongated tube, is an almost circular aperture, expanding principally from behind and in a forward direction. This opening is well adapted for receiving sounds from above, especially when the head is thrown laterally and upwards, as it is the habit of the fox, when listening beneath a hen-roost, or under a tree where his unconscious victims are perched.

In each instance, and in every case that may come within our observation, we shall find much to admire in the beautiful provision that is made for the necessities of animals, with respect to this one faculty alone; and it is with a view to direct greater attention to the subject, that we have brought it before our readers at the present time.

You say, if I mistake not, that a wise man pursues only his own private interest; and that this consists only in sensual pleasure: for proof whereof you appeal to nature. And you conclude, that, as other animals are guided by natural instinct, man too ought to follow the dictates of sense and appetite. But, in this, do you not argue as if man had only sense and appetite for his guides? on which supposition, there might be truth in what you say. But, what if he have intellect, reason, a higher instinct, and a nobler life? If this be the case, and you, being man, live like a brute, is it not the way to be defrauded of your true happiness? to be mortified and disappointed? Take a hog from his ditch or dunghill, lay him on a rich bed, treat him with sweetmeats, and music, and perfumes. All these things will be no amusement to him. You can easily conceive, that the sort of life which makes the happiness of a mole or a bat, would be a very wretched one for an eagle. And, may you not as well conceive, that the happiness of a brute can never constitute the true happiness of a man.—BISHOP BERKELEY.

THE HAIR HARVEST OF FRANCE.

THE months of April and May are regularly employed, throughout many districts of France, in gathering in what appears to the English a very novel kind of harvest. The purchase and sale of human hair has become within the last fifteen years so important and extensive a branch of commerce to the French, that numerous establishments exist for the furtherance of the trade, and a great number of hawkers or hair-cutters are sent out annually from each of them to purchase the tresses of their young country-women. These hawkers are well laden with such merchandize as they find most in request among the rustic beauties of the district, and thus they are often able to make a good bargain, by exchanging their muslins, kerchiefs, and calicoes, for the abundant and valuable locks of the damsels. They never fail to be present at festivals, fairs, and markets; and many a lass returns to her village from such places, laden indeed with trivial articles of ornamental mercery, but shorn of the ringlets which form a far more graceful and natural adornment.

So constant and regular is this traffic that the hair-cutters know exactly where to go for their year's crop. Keeping an account of the villages from which they gathered their supply for a certain year, they know that they will not be able to cut in the same places till the arrival of another given year. And not only can they calculate as to quantity, but the value of each local harvest is also well known, and almost fixed; for within a space of from ten to fifteen leagues, the quality varies so much as to make a difference of from ten to twenty sous per pound weight.

The produce of the harvest is sent by the hair-cutters to their respective masters, who intrust to other workmen the task of dressing and sorting it according to value and length. It is then sent to Paris, Bordeaux, Marseilles, Lyons, and the fairs of Caen, Guibraie, and Beaucair, whither strangers resort to make their purchases. That which is intended for conversion into perukes in either of these cities, is consigned to those tradesmen whose business it is to clean, curl, and prepare it for the purpose intended to be served by it.

The original price of the hair, as purchased from the village maidens, is five francs (four shillings and two-pence) per pound. The tradesmen engaged in the preparations above-named, purchase it at the price of ten francs per pound, and after it has gone through their hands, it acquires a value of from twenty to eighty francs per pound weight, and this is the rate at which it is purchased by the hairdressers. By the skill of the hairdresser, the price is again raised to an almost indefinite extent; and must be calculated by the degree of labour and dexterity employed on it. Thus a peruke, containing only three ounces of hair, originally costing a franc, is frequently sold at the price of twenty-five francs.

The quantity of hair produced by the annual harvest is calculated at two hundred thousand pounds' weight. The sales of one house alone in Paris, which supplies four hair-cutting establishments in the western country, amount to four hundred thousand francs annually. Nor is the trade to be considered in itself alone. It indirectly benefits several others, especially the silk manufacture. The lining of perukes formerly consisted of a coarse net work, but was afterwards superseded by a fine silk network, which for a long time was purchased of the English at fifty francs, but is now so extensively made in France, that the English are glad to avail themselves of the manufacture of Lyons, where the same article is sold at ten francs. Silk linings and ribands are made in that city for a million perukes a year. Metallic clasps and fastenings are also made and sold, to the amount of one hundred thousand francs yearly.

By the report of the great national exhibition of arts

and sciences at Paris, in 1834, we learn the quantity of the hair wrought and unwrought exported in several years. From this we will take that of 1832, remarking that of the large portion thus exported, a great part went to England and the United States. The quantity of unwrought hair amounted to 16,551 kilogrammes, at the value of 132,408 francs, while that of wrought hair, in the same year, was 13,741 kilogrammes, at the value of 137,410 francs.

It is remarked in the same report that this trade is one doubly interesting to France, as employing the materials of the country only, with petty exceptions. Far from causing French capital to leave the land, it causes capital to enter, both for the material and the manufactured article. But in truth the French hairdressers supply the made perukes to almost all foreign lands. Britain derives considerable customs (thirty per cent. of duty) on imported hair articles, yet London merchants bring them from Paris for transmission to the British colonies.

It is necessary to remark, respecting the value of the exports named above, that an agreement is made that only two-thirds of its real value should be given in at the custom-house, which is quite possible with such an article, and causes a great saving.

WHOEVER shall write the political history of that invaluable plant, the Cotton-shrub, will have a more important work to perform than has ever fallen to the lot of a biographer of statesmen or philosophers. I will venture to say, without going more into details, that the single circumstance of bringing the wonderfully cheap fabrics produced by modern machinery within the reach of even the humblest of the labouring classes, of substituting decent and comfortable raiment for the few scanty and filthy rags, the squalid exterior, which make poverty not only more painful, but at once more humiliating and degrading to its victim, and more disgusting to others than it ought to be, will signally contribute to elevate the condition of the poor in the social scale, to raise their self-esteem, and to increase the sympathy of others for them; in a word, to make them feel themselves men, entitled to a place among men; not pariahs and outcasts, whose contact is contamination. A people well clad and well housed will be sure to provide themselves with all the other comforts of life; and it is the diffusion of these comforts, and the growing taste for them, among all classes, it is the desire of riches, as it is commonly called, that is gradually putting an end to the destructive and bloody game of war, and reserving all the resources hitherto wasted by it, for enterprises of industry and commerce, prosecuted by the fiery spirit which once vented itself in scenes of peril and carnage.

And how is the face of Europe changing by means of such enterprises! I have travelled in parts of the Continent which the spirit of gain, with its usual concomitants, industry and improvement, has invaded since the peace, at an interval of fifteen years; and have been struck with the revolution that is going on. There is a singularly beautiful, though rather barren, tract of country between Liege and Spa, where, in 1819, my attention had been principally attracted by the striking features of a mountainous region, with here and there a ruin of the feudal past, and here and there the hovel of some poor hind,—the very haunt of the "wild-boar of Ardennes" in the good old times of the House of Burgundy. I returned to it in 1835, and saw it covered with mills and factories, begrimed with the smoke and soot of steam engines; its romantic beauty deformed, its sylvan solitudes disturbed and desecrated by the sounds of active industry and the busy hum of men. I asked, what has brought about so great a change, and found the author of it,—a man having a more numerous band of retainers and dependents than any baron bold of the fourteenth century, and in every respect more important than many of the sovereign princes on the other side of the Rhine,—was an English manufacturer, who had established himself there some twenty years ago, without much capital, and had effected all this by his industry and enterprise.—LEGAN.

RURAL ECONOMY FOR THE MONTHS.

IV.

APRIL.

Hail! pleasant month, that lead'st the way
From March austere to smiling May
Allied to each! The morning's frore
Now and again with mantle hoar
Array'd; the dry and biting blast
Shrew'd from the north; the sky o'ercast
With fleet and oft recurring shroud
Of sleety storm and darkling cloud;
Claims kindred to thy brother March.
On that dark cloud the braided arch
Imprint; the sparkling sunshine bright,
That now with countless gems of light
The meadows' grassy surface spreads
Resplendent, and with slanting threads,
Pierces the falling rain-drop's veil,
Now beams unclouded, while the gale
Breathes sweetness from the blooming spray,
Show likeness to thy sister May.

In this cheering month, when nature throws aside her wintry garb, and discloses a thousand fresh and pleasing forms of vegetable life, the agriculturist has an especial interest in watching the tokens of the advancing spring, and noting the appearance of the various crops. He is now able to estimate the effect of the past season on the grain committed to the earth during autumn; and he already begins to calculate as to the probable nature of the return it will yield to him, not forgetting, however, that favourable or unfavourable circumstances may occur to alter the prospects afforded at this early season. In traversing the richly cultivated districts of our fertile land at this period of the year, how much is there to excite our admiration, and to inspire us with gladness! Who can look with indifference on the verdure of the different trees and plants, now renewed in grace and beauty; on the tender green of the larch and the hawthorn, the bright wreaths of the chestnut, the pale foliage of the lime, the delicate sprays of the birch, the glossy young leaves of the beech, and the rougher, and more stately masses of the elm? The blossoming trees too; how lovely and attractive they are! whether nursed and sheltered by the care of man, as the peach, the apricot, the nectarine, &c., or growing wild in the hedges, as the sloe or the crab. Nor wants there many an attractive blossom among the lowlier plants, to gratify the sight and smell. The primrose and the cowslip, the ground-ivy, the strawberry, the violet and daffodil, are but a few of these: there are also—

With pale green bloom the upright *Box*,
And woodland *Crowfoot's* golden locks;
And yellow *Cinquefoil's* hairy trail;
And *Saxifrage*, with petals pale;
And purple *Bilberry's* globe-like head;
And *Cranberry's* bells of rosy red;
And creeping *Gromwell*, blue and bright;
And *Cranesbill's* streaks of red and white,
Or purple with soft leaves of down;
And golden *Tulip's* turbaned crown,
Sweet-scented on its bending stem;
And bright-eyed *Star of Bethlehem*.

But these pleasant sights must not divert our attention from the rural occupations of the month. The early part of April is employed in continuing those labours which we described as forming the business of March. During this month barley and oat sowing are frequently completed, the main crop of potatoes is committed to the soil; summer vetches are sown, and fallows intended for turnips, are cross ploughed. Towards the end of the month, as well as during May, top-dressings of manure are applied to wheat, barley, and other crops; and we may here notice a few of the substances which have become extensively used within the last few years, since chemical knowledge has been so advantageously applied to agricultural affairs.

The first we shall name is gypsum, or sulphate of lime. This substance is a compound of sulphuric acid and

lime, in the proportions of fifty-five parts lime to seventy-five sulphuric acid. Common gypsum likewise contains a considerable quantity of water, united with its other constituents. Gypsum is sometimes found in nature uncombined with water, but in this state is known by the name of *anhydrous selenite*. When this kind of gypsum, or when that which has been deprived of water by heat, is made into a paste with water, it combines so rapidly with the fluid, that it quickly forms a valuable cement. Plaster of Paris is nothing more than powdered dry gypsum, to which water has been added, in sufficient quantity to form a coherent mass. Gypsum is soluble in about five hundred times its own weight of cold water.

The employment of gypsum as manure has been attended with most remarkable success in America. It was first introduced there by Franklin, on his return from Paris, who sowed the gypsum on a field of lucerne near Washington, so as to form the words "This has been sown with gypsum." The effects were such as to astonish all who saw them, and the manure soon gained a widely extended reputation.

There are perhaps few parts of England in which this noted manure has not been tried in various ways, and upon different crops; and though the result has not been always so successful as to answer the high expectations of agriculturists, it is still in deserved and increasing reputation in many districts of our land. According to Liebig, the influence of gypsum upon the growth of grasses, and the fertility of the meadows where it is strewed, depends only upon its fixing in the soil the ammonia of the atmosphere, which would otherwise be volatilised with the water which evaporates. The majority of the leguminous plants afford considerable quantities of gypsum, and since this substance is to them an essential ingredient, it is not difficult to understand that fresh supplies of it should have a fertilising effect; but it is also serviceable to turnips and cabbages, which do not appear to contain it, and it has been recommended, in conformity with the theory above noticed, to extend its application to other crops, and also to mix it with the manure of the stables, in order to prevent the waste of ammonia constantly going on.

Nitrate of soda forms in many places a valuable manure, and is now extensively employed for that purpose. This salt may be formed either by adding the metal sodium, or its oxide soda, to nitric acid; but it has been largely imported of late years, as a natural product from Peru, where it forms a stratum of some miles in extent. This salt is without smell or colour: it has a cooling saline taste, and deliquesces in a moist atmosphere. When Mr. Darwin visited Peru, in 1835, the price of the salt at the ship's side, was fourteen shillings the hundred-weight; a great item in its cost being due to the expense of transportation to the coast. It is mentioned by Dr. Danberry as a remarkable circumstance, that the nitrates of soda and of potash, whilst in some cases they have occasioned a wonderful increase of produce, in others have appeared of little service, and also that, whereas on certain land both were equally efficacious, on a different description of soil one has answered, while the other failed. The results of various experiments seem to show that where the constituents which a plant requires are all present in the soil, with the exception of nitrogen, then the addition of the nitric salt does good by supplying that gas, and thus enabling the vegetable to assimilate the other ingredients; but when these ingredients are already nearly exhausted, the nitrates will be no longer of use, as that portion of nitrogen only can be assimilated which is equivalent to the amount of the fixed ingredients. "The proper remedy in such a case," says the Professor, "would seem to be that of applying some other manure, which may furnish a due supply of the deficient matters. Thus, if the nitrates have failed, we should be inclined to try the

next year the effect of phosphate of lime, or of animal manure, upon the same soil."

It is evident that to an understanding of the most judicious employment of these substances as manure, much experience and accurate observation, together with a considerable share of chemical knowledge, is required. The ashes of vegetable substances which have been burnt in the open air contain a large portion of potash, with some fine earths, and are consequently very effective in stimulating vegetation on some lands. During this month the operation of paring the land, in order to burn the dry sods and use them as manure, is usually carried on. This is a quick and effectual method of bringing a surface covered with coarse herbage into a state of culture. Sometimes a compost is made of the pared surface with lime, or earthen walls are built up with the sods which by the action of the atmosphere become friable and fertile, but these are slower processes, and perhaps not more advantageous in their results than paring and burning.

Another employment for April is the rolling of grass-lands where they are in a fit state to allow of it. The season must be particularly attended to in this process, for when the surface is either decidedly dry or wet, it cannot be performed to advantage. The early spring months are the most common period, and the present one frequently affords a favourable opportunity in situations where the land is of a dry description. A moderate fall of rain in such cases merely softens the earth to the required degree, and thus proves advantageous to the subsequent process. In wet lands, on the contrary, a later month will be chosen, when the superabundant moisture shall have been exhaled, and the soil brought into proper condition to receive the animals employed in drawing the machine.

By the operation of rolling, the surface of the land is rendered more compact by the breaking of the heavy clods, or in the case of pastures, a smooth and level surface is obtained. In both cases the practice is found decidedly beneficial, and it is sometimes found equally useful with young crops in the early spring. A heavy roller is found necessary, and the horses are usually yoked double, that the ground may not be injured by their following each other in the same track. If a third should be necessary it is attached as leader in front of the other two. Water-meadows are frequently rolled as early as February or the beginning of March.

The barking of trees is another important operation of the present month; but as we intend to give a separate notice of oak-barking, it will not be necessary to enter into the particulars of this interesting employment. We may remark, however, that the earlier this work can be done in the spring the better. As soon as the sap begins to rise the bark will be easily detached from the wood, and it ought then to be removed without delay: it is even affirmed that if the whole of it could be taken off before the leaves are completely developed it would be much better, for that every ton of bark taken off as late as July is deficient at the rate of two hundred-weight a ton, compared with that taken in May, or early in June. Oak trees are peeled from the latter end of April to the middle of July. The birch and larch may be peeled a month earlier than the oak, but it is usual to leave the former of these trees until July, because there is an outer skin upon the bark which is of no use to the tanner, and which cannot so well be separated at any other time.

In some districts the bush-harrow is much employed on grass lands during this month. It is useful in dispersing roughness and decaying matter, and it is also occasionally used for covering grass and clover seeds. It is of simple construction, being formed of small rigid branches of spray, interwoven in a frame consisting of three or four cross bars fixed into two end-pieces, so as to leave the under part of the harrow very rough and

bushy. Small wheels are sometimes attached to the two foremost extremities of the frame, but it is not uncommon to find them dispensed with, and the whole rough surface applied to and dragged on the ground.

INGENUITY OF A CHEROKEE INDIAN.

SEQUOYAH, a Cherokee Indian, instead of joining the rude sports of Indian boys, while a child, took great delight in exercising his ingenuity by various mechanical labours. He also assisted in the management of his mother's property, consisting of a farm, and cattle, and horses. In his intercourse with the whites, he became aware that they possessed an art, by which a name, impressed upon a hard substance, might be understood at a glance, by any one acquainted with the art. He requested an educated half-blood, named Charles Hicks, to write his name; which being done, he made a die, containing a fac-simile of the word, which he stamped upon all the articles fabricated by his mechanical ingenuity. From this he proceeded to the art of drawing, in which he made rapid progress, before he had an opportunity of seeing a picture or engraving. These accomplishments made the young man very popular among his associates, and particularly among the red ladies; but it was long before incessant adulation produced any evil effect upon his character. At length, however, he was prevailed upon to join his companions, and share in the carouse which had been supplied by his own industry. But he soon wearied of an idle and dissipated life, suddenly resolved to give up drinking, and learned the trade of a blacksmith by his own unaided efforts. In the year 1820, while on a visit to some friends in a Cherokee village, he listened to a conversation on the art of writing, which seems always to have been the subject of great curiosity among the Indians. Sequoyah remarked that he did not regard the art as so very extraordinary, and believed he could invent a plan by which the red man might do the same thing. The company were incredulous; but the matter had long been the subject of his reflections, and he had come to the conclusion, that letters represented words or ideas, and being always uniform, would always convey the same meaning. His first plan was to invent signs for words; but upon trial he was speedily satisfied that this would be too cumbrous and laborious; and he soon contrived the plan of an alphabet, which should represent sounds, each character standing for a syllable. He persevered in carrying out his invention, and attained his object by forming eighty-six characters.

While thus employed, he incurred the ridicule of his neighbours, and was entreated to desist by his friends. The invention, however, was completely successful, and the Cherokee dialect is now a written language; a result entirely due to the extraordinary genius of Sequoyah. After teaching many to read and write, he left the Cherokee nation in 1822, on a visit to Arkansas, and introduced the art among the Cherokees who had emigrated to that country; and after his return home, a correspondence was opened, in the Cherokee language, between the two branches of the nation. In the autumn of 1823, the general council bestowed on him a silver medal in honour of his genius, and as an expression of gratitude for his eminent public services. This extraordinary man is now with his countrymen west of the Mississippi.—*North American Review*.

We may remark, with reference to the above, that, as each letter of this alphabet represents one of eighty-six sounds, or which, in various transpositions, the language is composed, a Cherokee can read as soon as he has learned his alphabet. It is said that a clever boy may thus be taught to read in a single day.

WHEN a man stands in no awe of the disgrace which attends bad actions, and has no concern for his character, there is no way of transgression in which that man may not walk. With a countenance clothed in shamelessness and audacity, he easily and naturally proceeds from one bad action to the most profligate attempts.—PROCOPIUS.

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